

Second Generation of South Americans in Japan: Building Educational and Professional Careers

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I. Introduction

In Japan the number of South American workers and their families, most of them of Japanese ancestry or *Nikkei*, had steadily increased since the late eighties. However, the improvement of the economic conditions in their homelands, the onset of the global financial crisis by the end of 2008 and the triple disaster of March 11th led to the massive decrease in the South American population in Japan. According to the Japanese Ministry of Justice, by the end of 2012 there were less than 200 thousand Brazilians and 50 thousand Peruvians living in Japan. These are the fourth and sixth largest foreign populations after the Chinese, Koreans and Filipinos, and Vietnamese respectively.

The migration of Latin Americans to Japan was initially a household emergency strategy to face an adverse temporary economic scenario. This has since changed to a permanent residence. In the last 15 years family reunification process has brought a new agenda of topics, being one of them the education of migrant children, who have unique educational needs related to parents' work mobility, family members' roles and responsibilities, language difficulties, discrimination, marginalization, among others. Despite high levels of school absenteeism and dropout rates, and low education continuance rate, in absolute and relative terms, have characterized South American children's education in Japan (Kojima, 2006; Miyajima, 2006; Tamaki, 2012 and 2013), there is a group of conspicuous but unfortunately still few unexpected achievers, whose educational attainments have not always been singled out by the current literature. This second generation of South Americans are building their educational and professional careers in Japan or

in their homeland.

This exploratory work based on a questionnaire and structured interviews to young South Americans who are studying or working in the Kanto area, attempts to identify the main common determinants in continuing high school and post-secondary education. The survey sample that is composed by subjects who have been able to pursue further studies after completing compulsory education at elementary school and junior high school in Japan, was asked about their home and school environment, parents and teachers' support, safety network, Japanese and mother tongue proficiency, entrance examination process to the next educational level, identity, and multicultural experience in Japan and its impact on their studies and future career. It also provides with South American youngsters' voices and personal stories, which have played an important role in choosing their path after high school graduation, and therefore in building their academic and working careers.

The discussion will be focused on the determinant factors for overcoming academic adversity, the role of bi-culture on their career paths, parental and institutional support, and the definition of career not only as a mere occupation or employment, but also as a individual-society relationship, in which they can make full use of their competencies, in this case by being bi-cultural or multicultural, and achieve personal development and contribute to society.

By drawing a portrait of high-achievers of South American origin in the Japanese educational system, this paper also aims at suggesting key factors that may help educators, related public officials and policy-makers find ways to better support young immigrants.

II. Framing young migration studies

Until the beginning of the nineties the mainstream literature on migration studies had practically been centered on adult migrants, while there had been scant attention to children international migration and its consequences for their psychosocial, physical and economic well-being (Geisen, 2012).

Many transnational children move around the globe mostly because of the household head's job as they were overseas posted diplomatic corps, military, international business executive officers, or members of missions (Pollock and Van Reken, 1999), or because they or their parents are asylum seekers and refugees (Phillimore and Goodson, 2008). However, since the nineties the globalization process has had more significant impact on the size, destination, and composition of the flows, in which child ratio is larger. It has sucked children of the most diverse household backgrounds, in terms of social status, breadwinner occupation and economic conditions into its vortex. In 2010, there were 22.1 million international migrants aged 0 to 14 in the world, accounting for 10.3 percent of the 214 million international migrants worldwide (United Nations, 2011). Adding the next age bracket, between 15 and 24 years old, the percentage rises to 42. Consequently, the significance of young migration has captured the interest not only of the academic community, but also the concern of central and local governments, and civil society.

After framing their household strategy in a microeconomic analysis of costs and benefits and holding their hope for forging a better future in a foreign land, in contrast to the families described by Pollock and Van Reken (1999), and Phillimore and Goodson (2008), ordinary families decide to embark on the migration process without the institutional and logistical support of either the sending or the receiving country. Pollock and Van Reken refer to the privileged lifestyle of diplomats, military, mission members and international companies' employees, and called them an elitist community, who enjoy some perks provided by the sponsoring agency. Phillimore and Goodson emphasized the support and services the refugees are

supposed to be given to make a home for themselves in the receiving country, while whose government and civil society make possible the provision of opportunities for language learning, social inclusion in education, training and employment.

Besides other challenges that are also shared by overseas posted families and asylum seekers and refugees, such as cultural shock, lack of language proficiency of the destination country, nostalgia for their homeland and their far-away beloved ones, and family disruption; unsupported migration exposes the new comers to a different sort of social risks in the recipient society, such as downward mobility, poor language learning, educational underachievement, and stigmatization.

III. The challenges of the second generation

To the almost undiscussable benefits of education, and the learning process it entails, for the immigrant children's lives in the recipient society, we can add the significance of school life. Often school becomes the only window the second generation (recipient-society born) and the 1.5 generation (homeland born but immigrate at very early age and spend most of their developmental years in the receiving country) can see and experience the host society.

Suarez-Orozco et al. (2008) focused on the impact of formal education on the transition of immigrant youth from its homeland to the recipient society, emphasizing the fact that "worldwide, schooling has emerged in the last half century as the surest path of well-being and status mobility." Based on an interdisciplinary survey, they provide a very comprehensive and detailed analysis of the different portraits of foreign children in American society, and offer an explanatory conclusion on the different education outcomes or "varied academic journeys," by identifying the most important factors that influence the success or failure of young migrants in education. Engagement and performance, network of relationships, and language learning are identified as the most relevant factors for a successful educational achievement.

According to Suarez-Orozco et al. (2008), “schooling is particularly important for immigrant youth. For them, it is the first sustained, meaningful, and enduring participation in an institution of the new society.... It is in schools where, day in and day out, immigrant youth come to know teachers, and peers form the majority culture as well as newcomers from other parts of the world. It is schools in that immigrant youth develop academic knowledge and, just as important, form perceptions of where they fit in the social reality and cultural imagination of their new nation. Moreover, they learn about their new society not only from official lessons, tests, and field trips, but also from the “hidden curriculum” related to cultural idioms and codes-lessons often learned with and from peers and friends.”

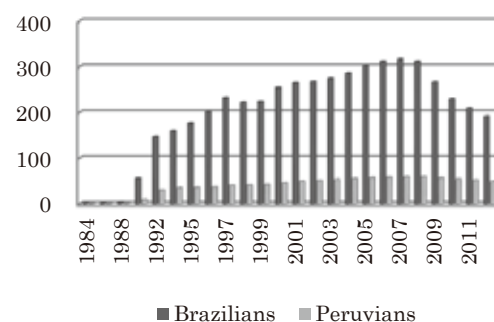
In the following two paragraphs, Suarez-Orozco (2008) emphasizes the reconstruction of an identity or the construction of a new identity, which is definitively different from their parents’, because it has been built after their interaction with members of the school community. This different identity causes a bifurcation in the experience path once they shared with their parents. “It is in their interactions with peers, teachers, and school staff that newly arrived immigrant youth will experiment with the new identities and learn to calibrate their ambitions.” “The relationships they establish with peers, teachers, coaches, and others will help shape their characters, open new opportunities, and set constraints to future pathways. It is in their engagement with schooling most broadly defined that immigrant youth will profoundly transform themselves.”

IV. Second generation of South Americans in Japan

In the last half a decade there has been changes in the demographics of South Americans in Japan. In general it can be observed an absolute and relative decline in their population. Particularly, the number of Brazilians who peaked more than 300 thousand in 2007, in 2012 it did not even reach the 200 thousand. In the last seven years, Brazilian population has registered 38 percent decline, while Peruvians 17

percent in the same period. In 2008 the latter were almost 60 thousand, but in 2012 the population shrank to less than 50 thousand (see figure 1). The reasons for this demographic decline can be explained by 1) this immigration’s ethnic nature that grants a special visa as Japanese descendant up to the third generation, 2) protracted economic crisis in Japan, 3) South America’s political and economic stability.

Figure 1
Brazilian and Peruvian Population
in Japan (in thousands)

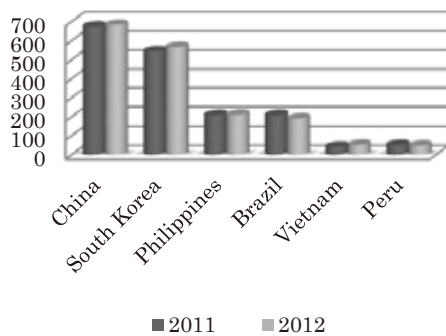


Source: Immigration Bureau of Japan

The economic component plays an important role in the household strategy of Brazilians and Peruvians in Japan (Tsuda, 2003; and Tamashiro, 2000). Initially it was a temporary household strategy for facing the ups and downs of the South American economy during the eighties. In spite of their prolonged stay, the economic factors are still determinant to their decision to stay in Japan or return to their countries.

The lack of capability for recovering of the Japanese economy after the bubble period and the so-called lost decade, the nineties, has been a significant factor in their decision to return to their homelands. The onset of the global financial crisis in 2008 and the triple disaster in 2011 were the final straw, of a declining trend that was observed since 2007, one year before the international financial crisis.

Figure 2
Foreign Population in Japan
(in thousands)



Source: Immigration Bureau of Japan

As it is depicted in figure 2, the relative number of South Americans compared to other foreign groups in Japan has decreased over time and became the fourth and sixth, Brazil and Peru, respectively. These two groups were surpassed by two South East Asian countries, the Philippines and Vietnam.

The Lehman shock of September of 2008 had more significant impact on Brazilian and Peruvian workers than on other immigrant groups in Japan, because South American workers are highly concentrated in certain sectors that were particularly beaten by the economic crisis, such as automobile and home appliance industry. Besides, it is estimated that more than 40 percent of Brazilians workers has lost their jobs in such areas, consequently there was an immediate impact on ethnic business and schools, according to Akashi and Kobayashi (2010).

Since April 2009 until March 2010, the Japanese Government, through the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, offered economic support for the ones who wanted to return to their countries, but only 12% of the qualified households applied for this one-time relocation allowance (Brazilians 93 percent, and Peruvians 4 percent). Between 2009 and the beginning of 2010 the number of Brazilians and Peruvians who returned to their homelands without Japanese Government's support is higher (Brazilians 20 percent and Peruvians 2 percent) (Jadesas, 2010).

Likewise, in order to support the ones who decided to stay in Japan, at local and central government levels, financial aid was provided

to employment agencies so they could hire more translators and staff to support foreign jobseekers, training programs for foreign workers to improve their job qualifications were implemented as well.

V. Young population in Japan

In general young foreign population in Japan shows an increasing trend, because there is an inflow of foreign students, and trainees from China and South East Asian countries.

Figure 3
Young Foreigners in Japan
(2012)

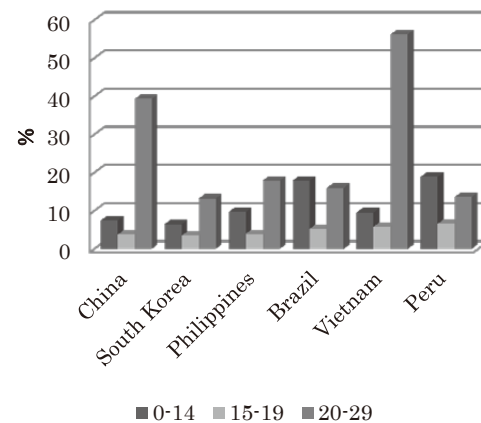
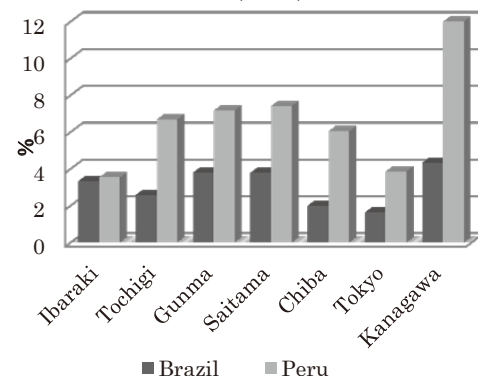


Figure 3 presents young foreign population for the six largest groups. Brazilians and Peruvians age bracket ratios are similar for each category, and it shows an even distribution across age ranges that corresponds to an immigration who has already settled down in Japan.

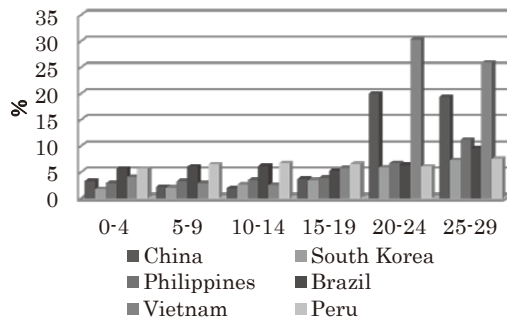
Figure 4
Young Brazilians and
Peruvians in Kanto Area
(2012)



As well as the total Brazilian population, the group between 20 and 29 is concentrated in the area

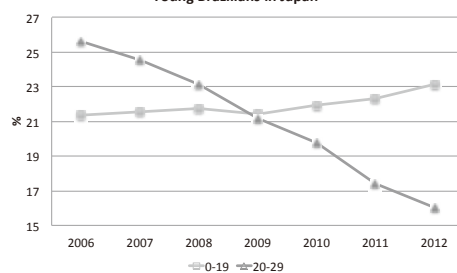
of Tokai, followed by Nagano and Gunma. On the contrary Peruvians are highly concentrated in Kanto area, particularly in Kanagawa, Saitama, Gunma and Tochigi.

Figure 5
Young Foreigners in Japan
(2012)



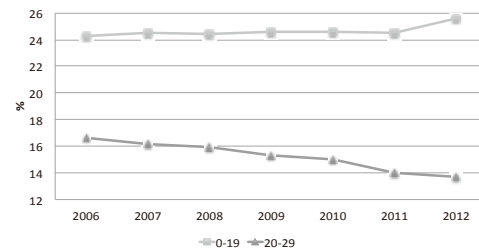
Following the general trend among South Americans, younger groups between 20 and 29 year-old range have been also on the move, and returned to their homelands, Brazil and Peru. If we take a look at the outflow of Brazilians every year since 2007, the returning population gathers around the 20 and 39 year-old brackets, because as part of the adult groups in their most productive years, they are looking for the most profitable experience across borders.

Figure 8
Young Brazilians in Japan



Both groups have a decreasing trend for the 20-29 year-old populations. However, it is clear that while that group ratio compared to the entire Brazilian population in Japan has declined dramatically, from more than 25 percent to 16 percent, which means more than 10 percentage points; the same age bracket for the Peruvian population has change only 2 percentage points.

Figure 9
Young Peruvians in Japan



Source: Immigration Bureau of Japan

This difference between these two groups residing in Japan, evidences their expected different behaviour.

Despite the declining in the total South American population and in particular in the younger generations, there is a group of young South Americans who has been able to endure the long economic crisis in Japan, the sequels of the global crisis and the earthquake, tsunami and nuclear disaster impact, and they are in Japan to stay. Eventually, they, who were born or raised in Japan, could return to their parents' country of origin, but after pursuing tertiary education in Japan, they continuing their profesional careers in Japan, and few of them return to their parents' country of origin.

VI. Pursuing tertiary education or not pursuing it: that is not the question

It is difficult to estimate the ratio of young South Americans in Japan who enter high school or tertiary education, because it is not possible to have accurate statistics on the child population of South American background who attend and who do not attend school. The existence of educational institutions that are neither approved nor authorized by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan; migrant parents' high mobility; and unexpected transnational movements can explain the unavailability of those figures.

Tamaki and Sakamoto (2012) indicate that Japanese pupils who go on to high school accounted for 98 percent, whereas it is estimated that compared to that ratio, the percentage of foreign pupils who enter high schools in Japan in much lower. They also mentioned that as regional disparities persist regarding further schooling ratios for foreign population, it

is difficult to estimate a percentage all over Japan. According to the results of their research, in Tochigi prefecture, which is located in the Northern Kanto Area, the ratio of entering high school is 58.6 percent for Portuguese speaking pupils, while for Spanish speakers is 79.5 percent. As a matter of comparison, other subpopulations' percentages are as follow, pupils whose mother tongue is Chinese, 92 percent; and Tagalog, 75 percent. The majority of Portuguese speakers were of Brazilian origin (34 out of 36), and all Spanish speakers had South American background (30 from Peru and 4 from Bolivia). It is also worth emphasizing that 83.7 percent of the entire surveyed population of 141 foreign pupils showed their aspiration for pursuing further schooling after completing compulsory education. Other responses were: work (0.7 percent), return to their home country (6.4 percent), undecided (5.7 percent), and no answer (3.5 percent).

VII. The survey

The current survey was conducted between December 2010 and March 2011 in the Kanto area by using snowball sampling as a method for contacting 24 interviewees of South American background, who have spent a significant period of their developmental years in Japan. Pertaining to the selection of the target population, all subjects have at least one South America-born parent, regardless of their current nationality.

1. The results

Although all the subjects are born either in South America or in Japan and most of them had spent more than the half of their lives in Japan, few of them have had a transnational education. Only two have experienced circular migration and studied between their parents' homeland and Japan.

In the case of mono-cultural households, most of the interviewees hold their parents' nationality, and few of them have become Japanese by naturalization.

However, some of them show their interest in acquiring the Japanese citizenship. On the other hand,

the subjects born to parents of different nationalities, being one of them from a South American country, usually have a Japanese father or mother, and have inherited his or her Japanese citizenship.

As the sample universe is very variegated in terms of nationality and place of birth of the parents and the subject, and its multiple combinations, it is very homogeneous in residence status and ethnicity. The majority of the sample subjects are *Nikkei* permanent-resident holders or *eijyusha*. As a result of the enactment of the New Japanese Law of Immigration of 1989, *Nikkei* and their spouses were automatically granted a status of residence in Japan, as they have at least one Japanese ancestor, who is related to within the third generation.

a. Quantitative Results

The interviewees were 14 female and 10 male, they were in an age range of 17 and 28 years old, and the average age was 22. Only three of them were born in Japan and the remaining 21 in their parents' homeland. They arrived at a average age of 6, 14 being the oldest age at arrival and 5 of them arrived when they were ten years old. In term of nationality, 1 of them was Bolivian, 4 Brazilians, and 19 Peruvians. Out of 24, 13 had already graduated from tertiary education (university and profesional or technical schools), the other 11 are still studying.

Mother Tongue vs. Japanese

While only two (out of 24) said they still face reading comprehension problems in Japanese, half of them (12) said they do in their parents' language. Only 5 said they have no problems at all regarding his or her Spanish or Portuguese skills.

Most of them still talk to their parents in the homeland language, or some sort of mix between this and Japanese (19 out of 24).

A little more of half (13) of them have received Japanese lessons at Japanese elementary and junior high school.

Continuing further Studies

9 out of 24 entered high school under recommendation schemes.

12 out of 18 who pursued tertiary education, have entered thanks to recommendation admission policies.

b. Quantitative Results

9 subjects said they have no interest at all in their parents' culture, and even if some said they do, they feel ashamed, because they cannot fulfill others' expectations.

"I feel proud of having Brazilian ancestry, but I don't speak even the language, don't you find it funny, strange, it is a shame! Yes, of course I would like to go there (Brazil), but just to visit friends and relatives." (18 year-old Brazilian male, Tochigi)

"There was no *ijime* at school. Sometimes I was thought to be Japanese, and I didn't know whether to feel good or bad about it, because it was like my being Peruvian-ness was fading away." My first name is not a Japanese one (i.e. Luis), but my second is (i.e. Kenzo), my father's last name is not of Japanese origin (Garcia), but my mother's is (Saito), so in Japan my name is Kenzo Saito, while in Peru is Luis Garcia." (22 year-old Peruvian male, Tokyo).

Less interactions with co-nationals brings beneficial outcomes in terms of educational achievement.

Choosing their Career Path

According to Arthur (1989) "The evolving sequence of a person's work and all that work can mean for the ways in which we see and experience other people, organizations and society." (Arthur, et al.)

For these young South Americans, the cumulative experiences striding two cultures in the same spatial and time dimension, provides them with a rich background for their interaction with the sending and receiving societies. It is not a mere job, it is a mean of self-realization and social mobility.

Three groups can be identified. First group: 4 respondents who are not interested in their parents'

culture and the word "international" is not in their fields of specialization. Their homeland language skills are low, and they graduated from technical high school (machine operator), technical or professional schools (preschool teacher, dental technician) or Faculty of Engineering. Usually they do not participate in volunteering activities aimed at helping foreigners or foreign children. The second group are the internationally active. 16 who are interested in their parents' culture and the word "international" is definitively in their fields of specialization. Their homeland language skills vary, and they graduated or still studying at international related faculties (7), English teacher graduated from the faculty of education (1), language schools (2), engaged in international exchange work (4), tourism (1), as translator in a publishing company (1). Most of them have already participated in volunteering activities aimed at helping foreigners or foreign children or work directly in these sort of events. The third group composed by the passively international and others. There are 2 who are timidly interested in their parents' culture and the word "international" is not necessarily in their fields of specialization. Their homeland language skills vary and after completing high school, one of our interviewees is devoted to religious work, and the other who studies social welfare, would like to participate in international volunteer work in the future.

VIII. Conclusions

The entrance examination process at high school level and university level, and the educational environment provided by Japanese universities that under a framework that fosters multiculturalism, has impact on Latin American students' academic achievement and job-hunting success.

All interviewees live, study or work in the Kanto area. Following the recent trends toward a multicultural co-existence in Japanese society, educational institutions have been able to favorably accommodate foreign students. "Favorably" means that among other positive factors that benefit them,

such as foreign-culture receptive attitudes and lessons for keeping up with Japanese learning and mastering their mother language, foreign students are motivated to participate in different events that are related to their own foreign communities in Japan. Their mother language ability does not seem to be a hindrance. On the contrary, it becomes an asset, as the acquisition of any other language should be, broadening their range for future studies and working possibilities. It is interesting to point out that those students have already engaged or have expressed explicitly their willingness to pursue international-oriented careers or serve as a bridge between their own countries and Japan, in which they can make full use of their language skills and their parents' culture knowledge.

However, there is even a smaller group which although has been educated into the Japanese system, was also able to preserve their mother language at certain level that eventually allows them to resort to it as an asset when they have to proceed to the next stage of education, either secondary or tertiary, and later on to the job market.

In migration studies it is said that there is no Japanese immigration policy, particularly if the Japanese government stance toward immigration issues is compared with its OECD peers. In consequence there are few attempts from the central government to properly accommodate foreign children into the Japanese educational system, while they conserve their own cultural legacy. This is how the Japanese government, rather than making full-use of these children's potential, disregards this possibility, which just become an unfortunate waste of human resources not only at individual, but also at national and global levels. Concerning local governments, prefectural and municipal governments have been more receptive and flexible in their response to migrant children's educational needs related basically to the lack of proficiency in Japanese language, awareness of Japanese culture and school rules, and education in their mother tongue.

Due to the peculiar characteristics of the Japanese public educational system, such as a

relatively lenient primary education with almost no grade repetition, very competitive examination-admission process for high school, and a wide gap between primary and secondary education, foreign guardians are often misled, realizing their children low Japanese proficiency only when they fail the high school entrance exam. Foreign parents' ignorance regarding their children performance into the Japanese educational system is a result of their language limitations and consequently, of their unawareness of the society they are living in. Generally speaking, once foreign children overcome this first hurdle - the high-school entrance examination - and after 3 years of hard studies in high school that include preparation for the university-admission exam, the way for tertiary education is already paved.

The high-school entrance examination consists on an interview and a written exam. However, there is a chance that the secondary school can recommend a student for his or her studies at certain high school. This recommendation and the interview can be means by which students' cultural background can be taken into account. Pertaining to higher education, in several universities there is an entrance exam modality with high-school recommendation, in which student's extra-academic assets are considered. In the case of the foreign children, their lack of competence in Japanese can be justified by their knowledge of a different language.

In the context of globalization, it can be stated that regardless of the field of specialization, bilingualism and multilingualism become definitively assets for students who enter the job market. However, it is important that as previous step, students during their universities studies improve their mother language competence and adequately understand their multicultural background, a task not always easy to perform in Japanese society.

In spite of being stigmatized as academic underachievers, a conspicuous but unfortunately still limited second generation of South Americans are building their professional careers in Japan or in their homeland. This paper has show that almost 40 percent

has entered high school under recommendation schemes (9 out of 24), and this ratio is higher for university entrance examination. More than 60 percent (12 out of 18) has cleared the admission process thanks to recommendation admission policies. Therefore, the entrance examination process at high school level and university level, and the educational environment provided by Japanese universities that under a framework that fosters multiculturalism, has impact on South American students' academic achievement.

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2010-2011 アンケート
日本におけるラテンアメリカ出身の学生の進学調査

1. 名前：	2. 年齢：	3. 性別：	男	女
4. 出身国：	町：	5. 現住所（区）：		
6. 何歳に日本に来ましたか。これまでにペルーに帰ったり、日本に戻ったりしたことがある場合は、時期・期間を全て教えてください。				
7. 兄弟姉妹がいる		はい	いいえ	8. どのような構成ですか。兄弟姉妹の年齢も書いてください

9. あなたは日本語がどのくらいできますか 1 科目の中で、日本語で理解できない科目が 2 授業で、日本語で理解できない部分がある 3 ほとんどの授業が日本語でわかる	10. 日本語能力試験を受けた/受かったことがありますか 受けた： はい 〃級取得 いいえ 受かった： はい 〃級取得 いいえ。 11. 日本語指導を受けたことがありますか はい いいえ 期間
12. 通信教育受けたことありますか	はい いいえ 期間
13. 小学校名：	県： 市/町：
14. 成績：	
15. 学校では母国の文化の紹介の場を作ってもらったことがある いえ	はい い
16. 具体的には	
17. 中学校名：	県： 市/町：
18. 成績：	
19. 学校では母国の文化の紹介の場を作ってもらったことがある いえ	はい い
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20. 外国人であることによるクラスメートの扱いは 1. 普通よりいい方 具体的に 2. 普通 3. 普通より悪い方 具体的に	
21. 高校への進学について、（複数回答可） 1. 当たり前だと思っていた 2. 自分自身は進学したかった 3. 周りの学生が皆進学するから 4. 両親に言われたから 5. 教師に言われたから	
22. 高校への進学について、誰から情報やサポートを受けたか（複数回答可） 1. 両親 2. 担任教師 3. 日本語の教師 4. 学校（校長、他の先生） 5. 友人 6. その他	
22. 中学校で卒業して仕事を探そうと考えたことがあった 仕事内容・職種：	はい いいえ

23. 高校学校名：		県：	市/町：
24. 入学試験方式	一般 推薦		
25. その学校を選んだ理由は			
1. 自分のレベルと合っている	2. 実は別の高校に入試したかった	3. 家に近い	
4. 県内/市内で一番質がいいから	5. 憧れている高校である	6. その他	
26. 成績：			
27. 学校では母国の文化の紹介の場を作ってもらったことがある		はい	いいえ
具体的には			
28. 外国人であることでクラスメートの扱いは			
1. 普通よりいい方 具体的に			
2. 普通			
3. 普通より悪い方 具体的に			
29. 大学/短期大学/専門学校への進学について、（複数回答可）			
1. 当たり前だと思っていた	2. 自分自身は進学したかった	3. 周りの学生が皆進学するから	
4. 両親に言われたから	5. 教師に言われたから		
30. 大学/短期大学/専門学校への進学について、誰から情報、サポートを受けたか（複数回答可）			
1. 両親	2. 担任教師	3. 日本語の教師	
4. 学校	5. 友人	6. その他	
31. 高校で卒業して仕事を探そうと考えたことがあった		はい	いいえ
仕事内容・職種：			
32. 同じ国籍の方と関わるボランティア活動に参加していますか。		はい	いいえ
内容：			
33. 大学/短期大学/専門学校名：		県：	市/町：
34. 入学試験方式	一般 推薦		
35. この学校を選んだ理由は			
1. 自分のレベルと合っている	2. 実は別の大学に入試したかった	3. 家に近い	
4. 県内/市内で一番質がいい、	5. 勉強したい分野があったから	6. その他	
36. 成績：			
37. 学校では母国の文化の紹介の場を作ってもらったことがある		はい	いいえ
具体的には			
38. 外国人であることでクラスメートの扱いは			
1. 普通よりいい方 具体的に			
2. 普通			
3. 普通より悪い方 具体的に			
39. 退学して、仕事を探そうと考えたことがあった		はい	いいえ

どのような仕事： _____ 理由： _____ 40. 同じ国籍の方と関わるボランティア活動に参加していますか。 はい いいえ 内容： _____
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III. 家族・母国語

41. あなたは母国語がどのぐらいできますか				
1 全然できない				
2 あいさつや数字、時間、月日、曜日などが言える				
3 聞いたり話したりすることが少しできる				
4 聞いたり話したりすることがだいたいできるが母国語の文章を読めない				
5 母国語で理解できない文章がある				
6 ほとんど母国語でわかる				
42. 日本語と母国語のどちらの方が話しやすいですか 日本語 母国語 両方				
43. 誰と住んでいますか 父 母 兄弟 祖父母 親戚				
両親の職業について：				
44. 日本に来る前 父 母				
45. 日本に 父 母				
46. どの言語で父親と話していましたか。 日本語 母国語 どちらでも ミックス				
47. どの言語で父親はあなたと話していましたか。 日本語 母国語 どちらでも ミックス				
48. どの言語で母親はあなたと話していましたか。 日本語 母国語 どちらでも ミックス				
49. どの言語で母親はあなたと話していましたか。 日本語 母国語 どちらでも ミックス				
50. 両親は日本語がどのぐらいできますか				
1 全然できない				父 母
2 あいさつや数字、時間、月日、曜日などが言える				父 母
3 聞いたり話したりすることが少しできる				父 母
4 聞いたり話したりすることが十分できるが読めない				父 母
5 聞いたり話したり読んだりすることがでる				父 母

IV. その他

51. 母国について懐かしく思いますか はい いいえ	
52. どのようなことを懐かしく思いますか（記述）	
53. あなたの将来について書いてください（仕事、帰国、別の国に行く）	

Segunda Generación de Sudamericanos en Japón: Forjando Carreras Educativas y Profesionales

SUEYOSHI Ana

La trayectoria académica de los jóvenes sudamericanos en Japón, la mayoría de origen brasileño y peruano, ha estado desafortunadamente asociada con altas tasas absolutas y relativas de ausentismo y deserción escolar, así como con bajas tasas de continuación de estudios terciarios. Sin embargo, un grupo aun reducido de jóvenes que culminan sus estudios secundarios superiores en escuelas japonesas se destaca y muestra sus logros académicos que están estrechamente relacionados con sus logros profesionales.

El presente estudio, basado en una encuesta y entrevistas realizadas a jóvenes residentes en el área de Kanto, analiza cómo cierta población de la segunda generación de sudamericanos en Japón ha sido capaz de vencer los obstáculos educativos en la sociedad de recepción, cómo sus experiencias personales como hijos de inmigrantes tiene relación con los caminos profesionales escogidos y hasta qué punto los diversos mecanismos de admisión existentes en las escuelas secundarias superiores e instituciones de educación terciaria en Japón han coadyuvado a dicho éxito académico.

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